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Environmental Metabarcoding Reveals Contrasting Belowground and Aboveground Fungal Communities from Poplar at a Hg Phytomanagement Site

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Environmental metabarcoding reveals contrasting belowground and aboveground fungal communities from poplar at a Hg phytomanagement site

Article

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1 **Environmental metabarcoding reveals contrasting belowground and aboveground fungal**
2 **communities from poplar at a Hg phytomanagement site**

3

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18

19

20 **Abstract**

21 Characterization of microbial communities in stressful conditions at a field level is
22 rather scarce, especially when considering fungal communities from aboveground habitats. We
23 aimed at characterizing fungal communities from different poplar habitats at a Hg-contaminated
24 phytomanagement site by using Illumina-based sequencing, network analysis approach and
25 direct isolation of Hg resistant fungal strains. The highest diversity estimated by the Shannon
26 index was found for soil communities, which was negatively affected by soil Hg concentration.
27 Among the significant correlations between soil OTUs in the co-occurrence network, 80 %
28 were negatively correlated revealing dominance of a pattern of mutual exclusion. The fungal
29 communities associated with *Populus* roots mostly consisted of OTUs from the symbiotic guild,
30 such as members of the *Thelephoraceae*, thus explaining the lowest diversity found for root
31 communities. Additionally, root communities showed the highest network connectivity index,
32 while rarely detected OTUs from the *Glomeromycetes* may have a central role in the root
33 network. Unexpectedly high richness and diversity were found for aboveground habitats,
34 compared to the root habitat. The aboveground habitats were dominated by yeasts from the
35 *Lalaria*, *Davidiella* and *Bensingtonia* genera, not detected in belowground habitats. Leaf and
36 stem habitats were characterized by few dominant OTUs such as those from the
37 *Dothideomycete* class producing mutual exclusion with other OTUs. *Aureobasidium pullulans*,
38 one of the dominating OTUs, was further isolated from the leaf habitat, in addition to
39 *Nakazawaea populi* species, which were found to be Hg resistant. Altogether, these findings
40 will provide an improved point of reference for microbial research on inoculation-based
41 programs of tailings dumps.

42 **Keywords : Hg-enriched tailings dump, Hg resistance, internal transcribed spacer**
43 **metabarcoding, poplar microbiome, Illumina MiSeq, network.**

44 **Introduction**

45 Plants in natural and agricultural settings are colonized by a wide range of microbes on both
46 their outer and inner surfaces [1]. Nevertheless, the scientific understanding of the microbial
47 communities of woody species is quite limited, especially for microbes associated with
48 aboveground tissues. Many tree tissues may indeed represent distinct microbial habitats, such
49 as the rhizosphere, the root and leaf endospheres, the episphere of the phyllosphere and fruits,
50 flowers, leaves, buds, stems, branches or even the trunk [2, 3]. Moreover, some of the
51 microorganisms that colonize these habitats establish strong links with their host, whose
52 disruption may result in loss of host fitness [4]. For instance, a certain groups of mycorrhizal
53 fungi that form symbiotic association with the root system, are of a importance for tree nutrition
54 and health, as they play key roles in the carbon and nitrogen cycles [5]. In the phyllospheric
55 habitat, archaea, bacteria, filamentous fungi and yeasts have been identified , although less work
56 has been done on the two latter groups of microorganisms [6]. Studies are increasingly
57 indicating that fungi influence the fitness of their host plants, either negatively by acting as
58 pathogens [7], or positively by increasing the stress tolerance of the plant [8], shaping insect
59 herbivory [9] or reducing the infection of plant tissues by pathogens [10].

60 Trees, as perennials, are made of a variety of habitats that may host contrasted microbial
61 communities, which composition and diversity may vary with season, age, species, climatic
62 conditions. Therefore, they are relevant models for studying the structure and composition of
63 microbial communities, but until recently, our knowledge has been limited due to the difficulty
64 of adequately describing microbial communities with classical culture-dependent methods. The
65 recent development of massively parallel 454 pyrosequencing [11, 12] and ion torrent
66 sequencing [13], combined with DNA multiplexing, provides an opportunity to explore parts
67 of the microbiome that are otherwise unreachable through culture-dependent approaches [14].
68 Microbiomes associated with belowground and aboveground tree habitats have been screened

69 at a large spatial scale using these technologies in some cases, and several studies revealed the
70 potential of the host tree genotype and environmental conditions to induce the establishment of
71 specific microbial communities [11, 15–17]. More recently, new high-throughput technologies,
72 such as the Illumina sequencing platform, have become available, showing a far greater
73 sequencing capacity, producing millions of sequences, which leads to much greater depth of
74 coverage of microbial [18]. It is now possible to examine the full extent of the richness and
75 diversity exhibited by microorganisms in different habitats. However, the quantity of data
76 reaches a critical point at which previous approaches are insufficient to decipher the structure
77 of complex microbial communities. Network analysis of significant taxon co-occurrence
78 patterns may help to decipher the structure of complex microbial communities among various
79 habitats. Software such as CoNet has been developed and optimized specifically to detect
80 significant non-random patterns of co-occurrence (co-presence and mutual exclusion) using a
81 Reboot method to determine the significance of each associations in the network [19]. Network
82 analysis requires lot of samples replication to obtained strong statistical analysis leading to
83 trustable correlations. This computation method combined with adapted experimental design
84 and with the tremendous amount of metadata obtained by high throughput sequencing
85 technologies gives us the opportunity to explore communities with a new global tool to revealed
86 OTUs importance in the community.

87 Within the growing environmental pollution paradigm, poplar is a keystone tree used as
88 feedstock for biofuel production and as a biological tool for phytoremediation and revegetation
89 [20]. The term phytoremediation refers to the use of plants and associated microorganisms to
90 eliminate, attenuate or restrain environmental damage or threats posed by a contaminant. Hg is
91 a contaminant classified within the quantitatively most important pollutant groups known as
92 trace elements (TEs). It is highly persistent in the soil environment and is classified as a
93 “priority hazardous substance” by the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry

94 (ATSDR) due to its toxicity, mobility, and long residence time in the atmosphere (*Available*
95 *online* <http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/SPL/index.html>). In a previous paper, we focused on
96 characterizing the microbial communities that had naturally recolonized the sediment of a chlor-
97 alkali tailings dump after sediment deposition had ceased. We further demonstrated that most
98 of the Hg detected in the aboveground parts of *Salicaceae* trees collected at that site had entered
99 the poplar leaves through exclusively through an atmospheric pathway [21]. However, the role
100 of aboveground and belowground microbial populations in Hg-contaminated environments
101 remains unknown, and there is a need for a holistic ecosystem-level understanding of microbial
102 communities associated with poplar [22].

103 In this study, we collected soil and tree samples from the belowground and aboveground
104 habitats of poplars grown as a short-rotation coppice (SRC) plantation at a Hg-contaminated
105 site, and performed isolation of fungal strains. We combined fungal community analyses using
106 Illumina-based sequencing with network analysis to investigate the composition and assembly
107 of fungal communities in these samples. We expected that we would observe clear differences
108 in the relative abundance and composition of fungal groups across poplar habitats that may
109 improve our understanding of the microbial ecology of these environments. Providing key
110 information on the fungal communities of belowground and aboveground will hopefully be of
111 use for practitioners of bioremediation approaches who often lack of important information
112 such as the effect of the pollutants (in this case heavy Hg) on the microbial communities that
113 surround the flora and fauna. This knowledge may benefit efforts to mitigate the environmental
114 impact of tailing management facilities.

115

116 **Materials and Methods**

117 *Site description and sampling design*

118 The location and history of the site have been fully described elsewhere [13, 23] briefly,
119 the site investigated in the current study was exploited as a sediment storage area from the
120 1950s to 2003. The sediments originated from effluents produced during electrolytic processes
121 associated with a Hg cell chlor-alkali process. A poplar monoclonal plantation of the cultivar
122 Skado (*P. trichocarpa* x *P. maximowiczii*) was implemented in 2011 as a short-rotation coppice
123 (SRC, 2200 stems/ha). The experimental design thus guaranteed minimum host variation to
124 focus on interactions between microorganisms in various tree habitats. Sampling was carried
125 out in summer 2014, consisting of collecting soil, root, stem and leaf samples from six random
126 trees, selected in three replicated plots (2 trees per plot). Soil samples composed of bulk soils
127 from under the canopy of the trees were sieved to <4 mm. After the removal of litter, the roots
128 were collected from the upper 20 cm layer of soil from under the canopy of the trees. They were
129 separated from the soil via 2 ultra-pure water baths, and the smallest roots were selected and
130 separated from larger roots by cutting them with a scalpel. Branch samples were collected from
131 poplar branches of axe 2 (0.8 to 1.2 cm diameter) at an ca. 5 m height, corresponding to the
132 half-crown of the poplar. Leaf samples were composed of 3 leaves collected from the above
133 branches. All samples were obtained over a one-day period to reduce any heterogeneity
134 imparted by climatic conditions. The samples were either freeze-dried and stored at -20°C for
135 molecular analysis or dried at ambient temperature (24°C ± 1) for physico-chemical analyses.
136 Thus, we considered the belowground and aboveground habitats to include both endophytic
137 and epiphytic fungi.

138 ***Molecular methods***

139 Within 2 weeks after sampling, the stored samples were freeze-dried (RP2V, Group
140 S.G.D. France) and ground into a homogenous powder in a Mixer Mill for 3 min at 30 Hz
141 (model MM400; Retsch Inc., Newtown, Pennsylvania, USA). Environmental DNAs were then
142 extracted using a modified hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB)

143 chloroform/isoamyl alcohol protocol [24, 25] for root, stem and leaf samples, while
144 environmental DNA from the soil samples was extracted with the PowerSoil DNA isolation Kit
145 following the manufacturer's instructions (MoBio Laboratories, Inc., Carlsbad, CA USA). A
146 purification step was added to all samples using the Power Clean® Pro DNA Clean-Up kit
147 (MoBio Laboratories, Inc., Carlsbad, CA USA) to improve the quality of the isolated DNA.
148 DNA quality and quantity were assessed via agarose gel electrophoresis and with the Quant-
149 iT™ PicoGreen® dsDNA Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) using an FLX-Xenius
150 spectrofluorometer (SAFAS, Monaco). Equimolar DNA pools were produced and adjusted to
151 10 ng/μl. Sequencing of the fungal ITS1 region [17, 26] was performed with the Illumina MiSeq
152 platform (Microsynth AG, Switzerland). PCR amplification of the partial ITS gene was
153 performed using the fungi-specific primers ITS1F (CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA) and
154 ITS2 (GCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGC) [27]. These primers target a short portion of the fungal
155 ITS region, resulting in an amplicon of small size (~ 300 bp) appropriate for Illumina
156 sequencing.

157

158 *Bioinformatics and statistical analysis of diversity*

159 Sequence de-multiplexing and bioinformatics processing of the datasets were performed
160 using the PIPITS pipeline [28]. PIPITS is an automated bioinformatics pipeline dedicated for
161 fungal ITS sequences which incorporates ITSx to extract subregions of ITS and exploits the
162 latest RDP Classifier to classify sequences against the curated UNITE fungal data set. Briefly,
163 all raw read pairs were joined at the overlapping region and then quality filtered, chimera
164 filtered, singleton filtered, contaminant filtered, merged and clustered into operational
165 taxonomic units (OTUs), defined at 97% sequence similarity. We excluded singleton OTUs to
166 avoid technical artifacts and overestimation of the number of species [29, 30]. The taxonomic
167 assignment of OTUs was performed using the UNITE [31] database at a 97% similarity

168 threshold. The samples were rarefied to 26 671 sequences. The Shapiro test and the Bartlett test
169 were employed to check the normality and homoscedasticity of the data, respectively. Our data
170 were systematically verified for non-normality and homoscedasticity, and the effects of the
171 compartment on the alpha diversity estimates for the fungal assemblage were examined using
172 the Kruskal-Wallis test. A number of alpha diversity indices (OTU richness, Chao estimation,
173 Shannon diversity index, inverse of the Simpson diversity index, measure of evenness based on
174 the Shannon index and coverage) were calculated using MOTHUR [32].
175 The coverage calculator returns Good's coverage for an OTU definition. Coverage was
176 calculated as: $C=[1-(n/N)]*100$ (%), where n is the number of OTUs, and N is the number of
177 sequences.

178 A 2-dimensional non-metric multi-dimensional scaling (NMDS) was calculated using
179 the Bray–Curtis method ($k=3$) on the basis of standardized (Wisconsin double) and square root
180 transformation of OTU abundance using the “metaMDS” function in the Vegan package in R.
181 We PERformed a single Multivariate ANalysis Of the VAriance (PERMANOVA), run with
182 1,000 permutations, using the “anosim” function in the Vegan package in R and employed
183 ANalysis Of SIMilarities (ANOSIM) to obtain P-values (i.e., significance levels) and the R
184 value (i.e., the strength of the factors on the samples). These results were paired with a heatmap
185 of Spearman's correlations between the relative abundances created with “heatmap.2” from the
186 gplots package. The numbers of OTUs that were shared between habitats were visualized using
187 Venn diagrams implemented in Mothur with the function “venn”. We considered an OTU to be
188 present in a compartment if that OTU was present in at least 25% of the samples from the
189 habitats. Correlations between the diversity parameters and the measured Hg parameters were
190 calculated based on Spearman’s product moment correlation coefficient (R^2). Riverplots were
191 created with the “riverplot” function in the riverplot R package. Rarefaction curves were
192 generated with the “rarecurve” function of the Vegan package in R. The bioinformatic analysis

193 was conducted using a computer with the following specifications: Ubuntu, Intel®Core™i7-
194 4790 CPU @ 3.60GHz x8, 16GB RAM.

195

196 *Network analysis*

197 To construct a network and simplify visualization and interpretation, a separate OTU abundance
198 table was derived using the aforementioned pipeline, but with a different OTU clustering
199 threshold (90%) [33]. Following Weiss and collaborators [34] extremely rare OTUs were
200 filtered out; i.e., for each habitat, all OTUs appearing in less than 25% of samples were
201 discarded, and all OTUs showing a relative abundance of < 0.01% of the total sequences were
202 also discarded. Network construction was performed with the plugin CoNet (v. 1.1.b) [35] in
203 Cytoscape software (v. 3.3.0) [36] following the protocol described by Faust and collaborators
204 [37]. Briefly, for each of the four similarity measures (Bray–Curtis and Kullback–Leibler
205 dissimilarity, Pearson and Spearman correlation), the distribution of all pair-wise scores was
206 computed. Given these distributions, initial thresholds were selected such that each measure
207 contributed 1,000 positive and 1,000 negative edges to the initial network. For each measure
208 and each edge, 1,000 renormalized permutation and bootstrap scores were computed, followed
209 by the measure-specific P-value. Any edges exhibiting scores outside the 95% confidence
210 interval defined by the bootstrap distribution or that were not supported by all measures were
211 discarded as well [34]. The networks were explored and visualized with Cytoscape. Based on
212 the results of Berry and Widder (2014)[38], we have chosen to use the degree as a keystone
213 proxy.

214 *Hg analysis in the substrate and biomass*

215 Hg was measured in the soil and poplar samples with an AMA-254 cold vapor atomic
216 absorption (CV-AAS) Hg analyzer (Altec Co., Czech Republic), using the standard conditions

217 recommended by the manufacturer (120 s drying, 150 s heating, 45 s cooling). The validity of
218 the analytical method was checked using the certified reference material (CRM) Oriental
219 Basma Tobacco Leaves (INCT-OBTL-5), with a certified Hg content of 20.9 ± 1.3 ng/g DM
220 [39], and quality controls were regularly performed as described elsewhere [23].

221 *Hg resistant yeast isolation and Hg resistance*

222 Leaves were collected from the field experimental site described above during summer 2015
223 and 2016, and immediately brought to the laboratory. The yeast were isolated using an
224 enrichment technique on a malt extract medium adapted from a previously described method
225 [40]. Briefly, intact leaves were incubated for 48 hr at 25°C and 200 rpm in an enrichment
226 medium (at pH 3.7 adjusted with lactic acid) containing 30 g/l malt, 5 g/l peptone, 5 ml/l filtered
227 leaf extract, and increasing amounts of HgCl₂ at final concentrations of 0, 2, 5, 10 or 20 µM.
228 Hundred µl of leaf samples were then plated on malt extract agar (12 g/l malt) and PDA (Potato
229 Dextrose Agar, sigma) media, supplemented with the corresponding HgCl₂ concentrations. The
230 number of growing yeast was expressed in colony forming units (CFU) per ml. The strains
231 growing at 10 µM Hg were purified, and resuspended in liquid malt extract or PDA media
232 supplemented with 35% v/v glycerol and maintained at -80°C for further analysis.

233 Isolated strains were grown in 8 ml of growth medium for 48h at 27°C on a shaker table
234 (200 rpm). After centrifugation, DNA was extracted from the pellet with the EZNA Bacterial
235 DNA kit (OMEGA bio-tek, USA) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. The
236 D1/D2 domain of LSU rRNA was amplified using a PCR with the universal primers ITS-1 (59-
237 TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCG-39) and NL-4 (59-GGTCCGTGTTTCAAGACGG- 39) [41].
238 All the ITS PCR products were sequenced by pyrosequencing 454 (Genewiz Beckman Coulter
239 Cenomics, United Kingdom). DNA sequences were edited with BioEdit software and screened

240 against the GenBank database using BLASTn tool of the NCBI site
241 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>).

242 Minimal inhibitory concentrations (MIC) for Hg were determined for each isolated
243 strains. Microtitration plates (96 wells) were prepared using two-fold dilutions of Hg in YPD
244 liquid medium, from a starting concentration of 256 μM down to 0 μM . Growth was measured
245 by spectrophotometry at DO_{595} after 24h and 48h of incubation at 25°C.

246

247 **Results**

248 *Illumina MiSeq sequencing revealed high diversity of the leaf microbiome*

249 Following total genomic DNA extraction from soil and poplar samples, amplicons of the
250 ITS1 region were generated, and a total of 8,345,173 paired-end reads were obtained through
251 Illumina MiSeq sequencing (Table S1). Among the 24 samples from each habitat, those
252 exhibiting a low sequence count were eliminated from the rest of the analysis. Thus, a total of
253 7,519,254 filtered and non-chimeric fungal sequences constituted our final processed dataset,
254 representing 90% of the initial post-sequencing reads, spread among 6,100 non-singleton OTUs
255 defined by representative DNA sequences with sizes of 101 to 363 bp (mean = 181.9 bp). After
256 subsampling, our dataset contained 26,672 reads per sample, distributed in 5,565 non-singletons
257 OTUs.

258 Rarefaction curve analysis, which assesses OTUs richness as a result of sampling, showed
259 that all samples approached an asymptote, revealing that the overall fungal diversity was well
260 represented (Fig. S1). Moreover, the measured Good's coverage values (an estimator of
261 completeness of sampling) were greater than 99% for each sample type (Table S1) and in every
262 sample, highlighting good overall sampling. Coverage, richness, and diversity, estimates were

263 calculated for each dataset (Table 1). The Chao1 estimator of Mothur, indicated good sample
264 OTUs richness throughout. The Shannon and Simpson diversity indices, measurements of
265 overall diversity, indicated a diverse microbiota. More specifically, the diversity and richness
266 estimates were always significantly higher in the soil samples, followed by the leaf, stem and
267 root samples (Table 1).

268 A permutation test confirmed that the habitat ($R^2 = 0.58$) explained most of the variance
269 in the fungal community, whereas variations between plots were negligible and not statistically
270 significant (Table S2). The importance of the habitat factor was further corroborated through
271 visualization in a NMDS plot (Fig. 1), and significant dissimilarity between all habitats was
272 confirmed with the ANOSIM test (Table S3). The Bray-Curtis method indicated that the
273 belowground and aboveground communities at the Tavaux site were well separated (Fig. 1a).
274 Considering the global analysis, NMDS plots revealed that root samples exhibited the greatest
275 between-sample variation (Fig. 1a). Furthermore, we showed that stem and leaf samples
276 clustered closely together (Fig. 1a), although the NMDS plot of the belowground (Fig. 1b) or
277 aboveground (Fig. 1c) communities alone showed a net clustering of each sample type in these
278 two communities. The leaf data presented less scattering than the stem data (see sizes of ellipses
279 in Fig. 1c). Overall, these data indicated higher homogeneity of the OTUs distribution in
280 aboveground samples, while the soil and root samples were less homogeneous.

281 In the Venn diagram analysis, the sums of the total observed fungal OTUs in the four
282 sampled habitats of the Skado plots were 1567, 609, 918 and 948 for the soil, root, stem and
283 leaf samples, respectively (Fig. 2). Overall, 151 OTUs (5.9%) were shared by all habitats. The
284 OTUs that were unique represented 52% and 35% of the belowground and aboveground
285 samples, respectively (Fig. 2). The soil samples exhibited the highest proportion of unique
286 OTUs (36.6%), followed by the leaf (10.2%) and stem (10.4%) samples. Conversely, the root
287 samples shared > 97% of OTUs with another habitat, mostly with the soil habitat (>84.7% of

288 the root OTUs were detected in soil samples). Our data also revealed that in the poplar
289 phyllosphere, 51% of OTUs were shared by the stem and leaf samples, whereas 31% of OTUs
290 were shared by the soil and root samples.

291 ***Symbiotic fungi dominated the belowground habitats, whereas yeast-like fungi dominated***
292 ***the aboveground habitats***

293 The fungal communities across all four habitats were dominated by the phylum
294 *Ascomycota* (54.6% of total relative abundance on average), while *Basidiomycota* represented
295 a smaller portion of the communities (23.5%) (Fig. 3). However, the
296 *Ascomycota/Basidiomycota* ratios were significantly higher in the aboveground samples than
297 the belowground samples (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2 = 36.7$; $P < 1.4 \times 10^{-9}$). The largest proportion of
298 *Basidiomycota* was found in the root samples (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2 = 56.1$; $P < 4.0 \times 10^{-12}$). These
299 ratios are very similar to those identified with 454 sequencing technology in fungal
300 communities associated with broadleaf trees [42]. Few members of the known arbuscular
301 mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) phylum *Glomeromycota* were detected in the soil (0.25%, 92 OTUs
302 from the *Entrophospora* and *Rhizophagus* genera) and root (1.30%, 90 OTUs from the
303 *Entrophospora* and *Rhizophagus* genera) samples collected under poplars. OTUs assigned to
304 mycorrhizal species were virtually absent from all aboveground samples. Members of the
305 *Zygomycota* phylum were almost exclusively found in soil samples (5.2%, for 65 OTUs),
306 mostly associated to *Mortierella* species.

307 Across all samples, we detected a total of 21 distinct fungal classes, which were
308 unequally distributed, suggesting substantial differences between sampled habitats (Fig. 4). The
309 belowground habitats were enriched with *Agaricomycetes* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2 = 69.8$; $P < 2.2 \times$
310 10^{-16}), *Pezizomycetes* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2 = 69.5$; $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) and *Sordariomycetes* (Kruskal-
311 Wallis $X^2 = 67.9$; $P < \times 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$). Moreover, the root samples contained significantly more
312 *Agaricomycetes* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2 = 16.3$; $P < \times 5.4 \times 10^{-5}$), *Pezizomycetes* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2 =$

313 25.4; $P < \times 4.6 \cdot 10^{-7}$) and *Glomeromycetes* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 17.6$; $P < \times 2.8 \cdot 10^{-5}$) but
314 significantly less Sordariomycetes and Zygomycetes than the soil samples. The aboveground
315 habitats were enriched in *Dothideomycetes* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 65.7$; $P < 5.4 \times 10^{-16}$) and
316 *Taphrinomycetes* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 69.8$; $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) from the *Ascomycota* phylum.
317 While some *Dothideomycetes* members were detected in root and soil samples,
318 *Taphrinomycetes* were virtually absent from all belowground samples. Although stem and leaf
319 sample habitats contained members of *Basidiomycota* classes, belonging to
320 *Agaricostillbomycetes* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 69.8$; $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$), *Exobasidiomycetes* (Kruskal-
321 Wallis $X^2= 69.8$; $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$), *Microbotryomycetes* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 69.7$; $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$)
322 ¹⁶) and *Tremellomycetes* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 69.0$; $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$), these classes were virtually
323 absent from all belowground samples. The high proportion of classes of unassigned fungi in the
324 stem habitat (63.5%) highlights the need for additional investigations of the diversity of the
325 fungi living in this particular habitat.

326 The assignment tools revealed that root and soil habitats were dominated by OTUs
327 identified as *Hymenogaster griseus*, *Thelephoraceae* and *Hebeloma hiemale*, all of which
328 belong to *Agaricomycetes* from the *Basidiomycota* phylum (Figs. 3 and 5). However, *Hebeloma*
329 (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 8.7$; $P < \times 10^{-10}0.003$) and *Thelephoraceae* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 48.5$; $P <$
330 1.7×10^{-10}) OTUs dominated the root samples (Figs. 3 and 5), whereas *Hymenogaster* OTUs
331 (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 4.3$; $P < 0.04^{-10}$) were the most abundant in soil samples (Fig. 3 and Fig.
332 5). By contrast, the aboveground samples were dominated by *Ascomycota* OTUs, mostly
333 belonging to 9 genera (*Alternaria*, *Aureobasidium*, *Bensingtonia*, *Lalaria*, *Davidiella*,
334 *Sphaerulina*, *Rhodotorula*, *Cryptococcus*, *Taphrina*). The *Lalaria* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 29$; $P <$
335 1.7×10^{-8}) and *Davidiella* (Kruskal-Wallis $X^2= 33$; $P < 9.2 \times 10^{-9}$) genera were most abundantly
336 found in leaves while a Pleosporale OTU was the most abundant in stems (Kruskal-Wallis

337 $\chi^2=3.5$; $P < 0.05$) (Fig. 3). The *Basidiomycota* OTUs in aboveground samples were mostly
338 assigned to the species *Bensingtonia yuccicola* (Figs. 3 and 5).

339 Each fungal OTU was further assigned to functional or morphological groups of fungi
340 using FUNguild (<http://www.stbates.org/guilds/app.php>) [43] (Fig. 6). For every assignment,
341 the FUNguild tool provides a confidence ranking, while referring to previously peer reviewed
342 data (Table S4). To examine the distribution of OTUs within the functional categories, the
343 abundance of the various OTU groups was set to 100%, and the OTUs were classified into
344 guilds (Fig. 6A) and morphological categories (Fig. 6B). The investigation of trophic status in
345 the belowground habitats revealed dominance of symbiotrophs in the root habitat (70.5%),
346 while the soil community was composed of saprotrophs (45%), symbiotrophs (40%) and
347 biotrophs (14%). In the aboveground habitats, saprotrophic fungi appeared to be dominant
348 (stem, 53%; leaf, 65%) (Fig. 6a). The symbiotrophic fungi identified in the aboveground
349 habitats belong mostly to the lichenized genus *Sphaerulina*, whereas symbiotrophs from the
350 belowground habitats were identified as ectomycorrhizal fungi from the *Hymenogaster* genus.
351 Another dichotomy was clearly revealed between the belowground and aboveground habitats
352 through the analysis of growth form morphology (Fig. 6b). Indeed, as the soil and root habitats
353 were dominated by gasteroid (soil: 67%; root: 48%) and agaricoid (soil: 21%; root: 45%) fungi,
354 the fungal communities from the stem and leaf habitats were essentially dominated by yeasts
355 (stem: 4%; leaf: 11%), dimorphic yeasts (stem: 62%; leaf: 38%), thallus fungi (stem: 27%; leaf:
356 1%) or rot fungi (stem: 11%; leaf: 37%). The presence of basidiomycetous or ascomycetous
357 yeast in the phyllosphere has previously been observed in plants from temperate, tropical and
358 Mediterranean climates [44, 45], in agreement with our results.

359 ***Interactions with Hg***

360 The analysis of Hg in the various matrices revealed that the belowground habitats
361 contained 100 times more Hg compared with the aboveground habitats (Fig. S2). In detail, the
362 average values of Hg were 42.5 ng/g DM in poplar leaves and 3.6 ng/g DM in poplar stems,
363 which are within the range of previously published data [21]. The root samples exhibited Hg
364 concentrations of approximately 2.4 µg/g of DM. The soils exhibited an average Hg
365 concentration of 5.6 µg/g DM, in agreement with our previous data [13], but ranged from 2.92
366 to 9.08 µg/g DM within the various harvested soil samples. Given the large variations in Hg
367 concentrations in each habitat, we analyzed the correlations with Hg concentrations in the
368 various matrices and found that only soil samples showed significant correlations between the
369 Hg concentration and the diversity or richness indices. Specifically, we found a significant
370 negative correlation between the soil Hg content and fungal richness indices (Observed
371 richness: Spearman correlation coefficient of $r^2 = -0.68$ and $p < 0.001$; Chao1 index: Spearman
372 correlation coefficient of $r^2 = -0.42$, and $p < 0.05$). The abundance of the two fungal classes,
373 *Eurotiomycetes* ($r^2 = 0.63$, and $p < 0.001$) and *Sordariomycetes* ($r^2 = 0.41$, $p < 0.05$), were
374 correlated with soil Hg concentrations, as well as the abundance of the two following OTUs,
375 corresponding to a *Thelephoraceae* ($r^2 = 0.44$, and $p < 0.05$) and a *Trichoderma* ($r^2 = 0.48$, and
376 $p < 0.05$) species. Conversely, the abundance of an OTU identified as *Hymenogaster griseus*
377 was significantly negatively correlated with Hg ($r^2 = -0.46$, and $p < 0.05$). None of the diversity,
378 richness or abundance indices were significantly correlated in root, leaf or stem with the Hg
379 concentrations (data not shown).

380 The number of yeast cells isolated from the phyllosphere was $2.5 \cdot 10^7$ UFC/ml without
381 Hg but decreased to $1.9 \cdot 10^7$ UFC/ml, $1.2 \cdot 10^6$ UFC/ml, $1.1 \cdot 10^6$ UFC/ml and $2.1 \cdot 10^5$ UFC/ml on
382 media enriched with 2, 5, 10 or 20 µM of HgCl₂, respectively. At 10 µM HgCl₂, only 2 species
383 were isolated, namely *Nakazawaea populi* formerly known as *Candida populi*, and
384 *Aureobasidium pullulans*, which was one of the most abundant OTU (2.5 % of detected

385 sequences) of the metabarcoding dataset obtained from the leaf habitat. The MIC values for Hg
386 of the isolated strains were 32 μ M for *Nakazawaea populi* and 16 μ M for *Aureobasidium*
387 *pullulans* (Table 2).

388 ***The co-occurrence network revealed rare fungal OTUs with a high level of interaction in the***
389 ***community***

390 We built co-occurrence networks to further assess the links within the fungal
391 communities of the four habitats (Fig. 8 and Table 3). After network calculations, some
392 topological properties that are commonly used in network analysis were completed to reveal
393 complex patterns [46]. The root and soil habitats harbored the highest network connectivity, as
394 exemplified by the highest number of edges and nodes (Fig. 8, Table 3). The co-presence and
395 mutual exclusion of OTUs in the whole dataset were equally well distributed in the leaf, stem
396 and root, habitats, whereas soil showing the highest mutual exclusion percentage (Table 3).

397 The network indices allowed us to define the 10 dominant keystone OTUs for each
398 habitat (Table S5), which were defined as being important to maintain the function and structure
399 of the microbial community and were arbitrarily identified here based on the number of
400 connections established with the rest of the network [47]. Some taxa can be less abundant but
401 highly connected with other taxa (as shown by the number of degrees within the node). These
402 keystone OTUs can be divided in two groups: those generating positive connections (co-
403 presence) and those generating negative connections (mutual exclusion). Both (+ and -) groups
404 were evident in this subset of keystone OTUs in the leaf, stem and root habitats, whereas the
405 soil contained mostly OTUs exhibiting negative connections, as observed for the whole soil
406 dataset. The tendency of OTUs to cluster is revealed by the clustering coefficient, which was
407 two-fold higher for the root habitat. In the leaf habitat, OTUs from the genus *Myrothecium* and
408 from the class *Dothideomycetes* (unassigned genus) produced the highest number of negative

409 connections. The genus *Myrothecium*, previously detected in mulberry, has been identified as
410 a foliar pathogen producing mycotoxins [48]. Our work revealed that OTUs from this genus
411 found on poplar leaves had an overall negative impact on other microbes from the leaf
412 community. In the stem habitat, an OTU from the *Exobasidiomycetes* class showed only
413 negative connections with all other fungal OTUs. The other keystone OTUs from the stem
414 belonged to the *Dothideomycetes* class and exhibited mostly negative connections. Similarly,
415 in the root habitat, two keystone OTUs belonging to *Glomeromycetes* exhibited mostly negative
416 connections with other OTUs. In contrast to the leaf and stem habitats, other keystone OTUs
417 presented mostly positive connections, constituting a cluster highlighted in Figure 8.
418 *Rhodotorula* and *Lalaria* OTUs from this cluster were rather rare in the root habitat but were
419 frequently encountered in the leaf habitat (Fig. 3). The soil habitat was characterized by
420 keystone OTUs exhibiting mostly negative connections. The *Peziza* OTU (ITS-75-68665)
421 displayed the greatest number of connections among all keystone OTUs by far (Table S5).

422

423 **Discussion**

424 We used the Illumina MiSeq sequencing platform to characterize fungal communities
425 from a poplar plantation at a Hg-contaminated site. It is important to bear in mind that we were
426 unable to distinguish between endophytes and epiphytes in each of the three plant habitats (root,
427 stem and leaf) and instead considered the fungal communities in these habitats in their entirety.
428 Although we did not set out to study seasonal dynamics of the belowground and aboveground
429 fungal communities, we should bear in mind that differing seasonal patterns between
430 belowground [49] and aboveground [50, 51] fungal taxa have been described previously. It was
431 concluded that the variation of foliar chemistry across growing seasons should not be
432 considered a major driver of the observed fungal dynamics.

433 Rarefaction analyses and richness estimators indicate that much of the total diversity
434 detectable with the Illumina-based sequencing was obtained. The finding of higher richness and
435 diversity in aboveground habitats compared with the root habitat was poorly predictable, as
436 there are considerably fewer available studies on aboveground communities, compared with
437 belowground communities. A previous study revealed a low percentage of fungal OTUs shared
438 by leaf and root samples in *Fagus sylvatica* trees [42], while another study showed that a
439 majority of aboveground OTUs were also present in the belowground compartment of agave
440 plants [3]. Our dataset unequivocally revealed that i) less than 6% of the OTUs were detected
441 in all four habitats, and ii) the aboveground fungal communities from poplar leaves were
442 extremely diverse, although they were represented by only a few abundant taxa and numerous
443 rare taxa [15, 52]. Overall, our results strongly indicate that belowground habitats host fungal
444 communities almost completely isolated from from the aboveground habitats communities in
445 terms of taxonomy, growth morphology, and relationship with trees or microbial interactions.
446 Considering previous studies, the finding of lower richness and diversity in the root compared
447 with the soil habitat was expected [3, 11, 53]. Clear separation of microbiomes has been
448 reported for soil and root samples from mature poplars [54] and 2-year-old poplars [11]. In our
449 study, we showed that 87% of the detectable OTUs of the roots habitat were also found in the
450 soil habitat but few taxa were strongly associated to root. Thus, the root fungal communities
451 also displayed lower homogeneity of the species distribution compared with soil communities.

452 We demonstrated that the fungal communities associated with *Populus* roots mostly
453 consisted of ectomycorrhizal fungi, which are known to develop mutually beneficial
454 interactions with their hosts. These plant-microorganism interactions in the root compartment
455 are probably one of the factors explaining the reasonable adaptation of *Populus skado* to this
456 particular soil. The *Thelephorales* OTUs in the root samples accounted for the main
457 contribution to the dominance of symbiotrophs in roots, as most members of this order are

458 known to be ectomycorrhizal and to live in symbiosis with various host plants across Northern
459 America and Europe. *Thelephoraceae* are indeed abundant colonizers of *Salix caprea* or
460 *Populus tremula* roots in TE-contaminated soils [55–57]. Additionally, OTUs corresponding to
461 the *Hebeloma*, *Cortinarius* and *Geopora* genera were also detected in our root and soil samples,
462 in agreement with previous studies [55, 56]. Members of the *Hebeloma* mycorrhizal genus
463 (notably *H. mesophaeum*) are frequently found within unvegetated soils [55, 56] and have been
464 shown to promote the growth of host trees in soils contaminated with metals [58]. At the family
465 level, both this and a previous study by our group [13] identified *Agaricomycetes* and
466 *Pezizomycetes* as the most frequent fungal families in the belowground compartment. Similarly,
467 five of the 6 most common genera (*Hebeloma*, *Mortierella*, *Tuber*, *Geopora* and *Cortinarius*,
468 but not *Hymenogaster*) identified in this study were among the top five detected previously.

469 The analysis of growth morphology clearly resulted in clustering of the belowground
470 and aboveground habitats. The soil and root habitats were dominated by agaricoid and gasteroid
471 fungi, as highlighted by the presence of *Hebeloma* and *Hymenogaster* species, respectively.
472 The fungi from stem and leaf communities were essentially identified as yeasts or facultative
473 yeast morphotypes (Fig. 6b), as exemplified by *Lalaria* OTUs [59]. Abundance of *Lalaria*
474 OTUs in the phyllosphere has previously been reported on the leaves of *Fagus sylvatica* [60]
475 and in the *Quercus* phyllosphere [15]. *Davidiella tassiana*, also known as *Mycosphaerella*
476 *tassiana* or *Cladosporium herbarum*, is a leaf pathogenic fungus from the Helotiales order that
477 is commonly encountered in the phyllosphere of trees [61]. Reader should keep in mind that
478 many fungi have several names, which can lead to mistakes and thus have always to be taken
479 in consideration when using dated data. Standardization at a global scale of fungal names should
480 only profit to fungal ecology. The stem tissues were enriched in *Pleosporales* sp. and
481 *Sphaerulina pseudovirgaureae* OTUs. Previous studies have shown that phyllosphere

482 endophytic fungi can play an important role in enhancing plant health [20], acting as biocontrol
483 agents against other plants, insects and pathogens.

484 Hg is known to be a toxic element, but only few studies have explored the impact of Hg on
485 fungal communities in field trials. Müller (2001) showed that the soil fungal biomass was not
486 affected by the Hg along a Hg gradient ranging from 7-522 mg THg/kg of soil. Over a narrow
487 gradient in terms of the Hg concentration, only a negative correlation between arbuscular
488 mycorrhizal fungi and Hg was observed in the literature, while no correlation was found
489 between ectomycorrhizal (ECM) fungi and Hg [63]. Therefore, this study is the first to
490 describe a significant negative effect of Hg on soil fungal richness and diversity under long-
491 term, natural Hg exposure. In contrast, Hg exposure was not a major driver of the root, stem
492 and leaf communities, probably due to the limited variations and the limited impact these
493 variations may have on cellular processes. Nevertheless, we were able to isolate some Hg
494 resistant yeast strains from the leaf habitat. Resistance here refer to the fact that these strains
495 were isolated on Hg-enriched growth media, and to the MIC measured for these strains, which
496 are comparable to previously published data [64]. As most of the Hg detected in poplar leaves
497 entered through the atmospheric pathway [21], we indeed focused on the isolation of Hg
498 resistant fungi from this habitat. We thus isolated *Aureobasidium pullulans* Hg resistant
499 strains, also highly represented in the leaf metabarcoding dataset (Fig. 3). This species is
500 recognized as an active phylloplane colonizer [65], which showed some capacity to bind
501 metals to the cell surfaces [66]. Other, authors previously revealed that melanized fungi such
502 as *Aureobasidium pullulans*, *Cladosporium spp.* and *Alternaria alternate* have been isolated
503 from soil samples treated with toxic industrial wastes containing high concentrations of
504 copper and mercury and may also be dominant members of the mycobiota of metal-
505 contaminated phylloplanes [67]. We also isolated *Nakazawaea populi* Hg resistant strains,
506 that were not detected in our metabarcoding dataset, probably due to an uncomplete

507 assignment, and that may be part of the unassigned *Ascomycota* cluster (Fig. 3). This strain
508 has been recently assigned to the *Nakazawaea* genus, and was previously known as a member
509 of the *Candida* genus [68]. *C. populi* was indeed isolated from poplar sap exudate [69]. These
510 strains will be further used in inoculation experiments, to better understand the role of leaf
511 yeast communities on the overall Hg cycle between soil, atmospheric and leaf compartments.

512 This study is the first to explore the organization of the fungal communities of soil,
513 roots, stems and leaves using a co-occurrence approach at the scale of a clonal tree stand.
514 Indeed, previous studies have focused on species abundance and diversity, but not on the
515 interactions among species, which could be more important to ecosystem functioning [70]. Co-
516 occurrence networks represent individual microbes (operational taxonomic units (OTUs)) as
517 nodes and feature–feature pairs as edges, where an edge may imply a biologically or
518 biochemically meaningful relationship between features, and are based on correlations [34].
519 For instance, one may expect that mutualistic microbes, or those that benefit each other, will
520 co-occur across samples. In contrast, antagonistic relationships between microbes, such as
521 competition for the same niche, result in a mutual exclusion. It has been observed that
522 phylogenetically related microbes have a tendency to positively co-occur [71]. In practice,
523 microbes may exhibit positive or negative correlations for indirect reasons, based on their
524 environmental preferences. The overall dataset revealed that non-abundant OTUs might play a
525 significant role in the network of interactions. Co-occurrence network analysis of the fungal
526 communities from the four habitats established a clear dichotomy between soil and the three
527 other habitats, where the soil community was dominated by negative edges, known as mutual
528 exclusion. It should be noted that sequencing depth impacts the percentage of positive edges in
529 the network, with a low depth resulting in spurious positive correlations [37]. Thus, the large
530 number of negative correlations found in our study can be correlated with our extremely high
531 sequencing depth. This dominance of negative degrees found in the soil (80%), but not in the

532 roots nor in the aboveground habitats, could reflect a high degree of competition between fungi
533 in the soil due to a lack of nutrient availability in the absence of tree exudates. It is also possible
534 that the soil microorganisms under the canopy were in competition with the plants for nutrients
535 such as nitrogen, exacerbating the nutrient competition between microorganisms [72]. The
536 network obtained from the fungal sequencing data also revealed that the root compartment
537 present the highest number of interactions between fungi and the highest clustering coefficient,
538 with predominance of *Glomeromycetes*, showing a great number of interactions with other
539 fungi. Arbuscular mycorrhizas (AM) formed by *Glomeromycetes* are widespread in living
540 plants, supporting the ancestral origin of the plant–*Glomeromycetes* symbiosis, as fully
541 supported by the literature [73]. We noted that the class *Glomeromycetes* produced many
542 degrees of mutual exclusion with other classes and between the most interactive
543 *Glomeromycetes* themselves. The hub in the root compartment network typical of the leaf
544 compartment could correspond to the transfer of microorganisms during leaf fall in the root
545 area, but the real explanation is still unclear.

546 We may conclude that each habitat that we studied represents a unique niche for the
547 fungal communities in a monoclonal plantation of the cultivar Skado (*P. trichocarpa* x *P.*
548 *maximowiczii*) implemented in 2011 as a short-rotation coppice (SRC, 2200 stems/ha).
549 Aboveground and belowground poplar habitats host completely different fungal communities,
550 as highlighted by the core microbiome of the four habitats that represent only reduced to 5.9%
551 of the total OTUs. We will further explore the role of fungal organisms in the Hg cycle, which
552 deserves attention. We believe that our findings will be instructive for the design of future
553 ecological restoration practices.

554

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563

564

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774 **Figure legends**

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776 **Figure 1.** Non-parametric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) plot of fungal communities associated
777 with the four poplar habitats, using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity measure. Each point represents the
778 fungal community of a given sample. Each color represents one of the 6 trees sampled. Confidence area
779 of ellipses = 0.95. (a) All habitats, (b) belowground habitats, and (c) aboveground habitats.

780 **Figure 2.** Venn diagram showing the overlap of the fungal communities from the four poplar habitats,
781 based on OTUs. OTU delineation was based on a threshold of < 97% sequence similarity

782 **Figure 3.** Proportion and taxonomic assignment of abundant and rare (< 0.5% relative abundance)
783 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) from the various poplar habitats. The assignments are given at the
784 lowest taxonomic level possible, with relative proportions presented in parentheses. The abundance of
785 the major phyla and the total number of reads are provided on the left side of each graph, color coded
786 as follows: *Ascomycota* (red), *Basidiomycota* (blue), *Zygomycota* (yellow), *Chytridiomycota* (brown),
787 *Glomeromycota* (green) and unassigned fungi (grey).

788 **Figure 4.** Composition of the fungal communities from the various poplar habitats at the class level.
789 The data were derived from MiSeq sequencing of the ITS1 region.

790 **Figure 5.** Heat map and hierarchical cluster analysis of the relative abundance of fungal OTUs from the
791 various poplar habitats. Letters indicate significantly different abundances at $p < 0.05$ (Kruskal-Wallis
792 comparison test), $n=23$ (root and leaf) or $n=24$ (soil and stem). The dendrogram represents linkage
793 clustering using Euclidean distance measures. OTU delineation was based on a threshold of < 97%
794 sequence similarity. The number associated with the OTU corresponds to the relative abundance rank
795 of that OTU in the total dataset. Assignments between brackets show the lowest taxonomic level
796 associated with the OTU using the UNITE database, k: kingdom, p: phylum, o: order, c: class, f: family,
797 s: genus_species.

798 **Figure 6.** Relative proportions of fungal sequences from the various poplar habitats assigned to major
799 fungal guilds (a) and morphological groups (b).

800 **Figure 7.** Box plots of the Hg concentration (ng/mg DM) in (a) belowground habitats, and (b)
801 aboveground habitats. Letters indicate significant differences between habitats (p -value < 0.05).

802 **Figure 8.** Co-occurrence network of microbial taxa detected in the four habitats via a high-throughput
803 DNA sequencing (Illumina MiSeq). Nodes represent fungal OTUs, whereas edges represent
804 significant positive correlations between pairs of OTUs. The node size corresponds to the number of
805 connections, and taxa with many correlations are within densely connected areas of the network.
806 Green edges between nodes represent co-presence, while red edges represent mutual exclusion.

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